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ABSTRACT

Men, traditional women, and nontraditional women were compared regarding the importance they attach to pay, prestige, and social rewards received from a job. Heterogeneous groups of 290 females and 189 males rated the importance of 16 rewards. Pay was rated as significantly more important than either prestige or social rewards by all three groups. No significance between-group differences were found regarding the importance of pay or social rewards. Significant differences were found regarding the importance attached to presitge. Nontraditional women and men rated this reward as significantly more important than did traditional women. Significant differences were also found in the importance attached to the social rewards when age and marital status were considered, i.e., social rewards were regarded as more important for single persons than for married persons, while younger persons attributed more importance to social rewards than did older persons. (Author)

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JOB REWARD VALUE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEN, NON-TRADITIONAL AND TRADITIONAL WOMEN

A Thesis

Presented to the

Faculty of

San Diego State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

in

Psychology

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by

Carol Susan Greebler

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

In the field of industrial-organizational psychology, an important area of research concerns what people want and expect as compensation from their jobs. Recently, the question of possible sex differences in reward preferences has been of interest. However, studies designed to investigate these differences have yielded ambiguous results.

The present study was conducted to examine and compare the relative importance men and women attach to various rewards. A second objective was to see if the conflicting evidence regarding sex differences in reward preference in the literature might be attributable to the specific samples of women studied. The values of career-oriented, nontraditional women may be different from their more traditional counterparts. Studies comparing nontraditional women to men may yield different results than studies comparing traditional women to men.

In particular, this study is concerned with the relative importance attached to pay, prestige, and social rewards by men, nontraditional and traditional

women in a work environment. Findings supporting such differences should assist organizations in designing and implementing appropriate compensation programs. On the other hand, lack of evidence supporting such differences should alert organizations of the need to revamp discriminatory reward systems based on false assumptions regarding sex differences.

Background and Literature Review

The process by which an organization operates may be regarded as a system of exchange between employer and employee. Workers contribute their time, abilities, knowledge, and effort in return for desired rewards. This exchange model of rewards and compensation has been explicated by Atchison and Belcher (1971). In the employment exchange model, inputs such as effort, experience, and skill are the contributions an individual gives to an organization. The compensations the worker receives for participating in the exchange are called rewards and can satisfy economic and social, as well as physical and psychological needs. The form or amount of reward will vary depending on the compensation system, the specific contributions made, and the values of the individual. Satisfaction with a reward

depends on the individual's perception of the fairness or equity with which the rewards parallel the personal aspirations of that worker (Locke, 1976). If the expectations, needs, and values of the recipient are not fulfilled, dissatisfaction may occur. Numerous studies have shown a negative association between employee satisfaction, and turnover and absenteeism. The more discontented workers are, the more likely they are to leave their jobs, call in sick, intentionally perform less effectively, file grievances, or possibly destroy material or equipment (Locke, 1976; Porter & Steers, 1973). Dissatisfied or frustrated workers, through their social interactions, may also adversely affect the psychological state and productivity of fellow workers. It is, therefore, economically advantageous for organizations to develop compensation programs compatible with employee values. To accomplish this, management must be aware of changes in its employee population, whether due to new people entering the organization or the changing values of present employees.

The influx of women into traditionally male occupations represents a change in employee populations. The desire for a fulfilling career has become an

increasingly common goal for many women. In addition, with the increased rate of divorce, more women have become the sole supporters of a family and are forced to either work for the first time, or find jobs paying well enough to keep up with the rising cost of living. Many women also work to supplement their family income. Other women may work as a means of self-actualization through challenging psychological growth or by making meaningful contributions to society. The reason a woman works will be influenced by the needs and values she is attempting to satisfy. According to a recent U.S. Department of Labor (1975) report, the majority of women working in this country do so because it is financially necessary. Nonetheless, there exists a common misconception that women are in less need of good paying jobs than men. This false assumption is commonly used as a rationale for the inequality which still exists in salary allocations, hiring and promotion practices between the sexes. Women are often paid less than men when performing the same job and, similarly, are much less frequently given promotions and raises despite equal achievement and contributions (Levitin, Quinn, & Staines, 1973; McGuigan, 1974; Mattfeld & Van Aken, 1972; Smith, 1962). One possible

explanation for this is that the employers responsible for hiring are discriminating against women. This could be due to conscious or subconscious prejudices regarding outdated or inappropriate sex-role stereotypes of women such as women not needing money as much as men. Previous research has cited evidence of differences between men and women on the importance attributed to various kinds of rewards received from a job. These dissimilarities may be due to actual differences in the needs and values of the sexes or a reflection of the different sources men and women use to satisfy the same needs.

One rationale for salary and promotion discrepancies centers on the idea that women are not highly motivated by pay, promotion, or prestige rewards. Along the same line of thought is the belief that women prefer the more socially-oriented rewards of affiliation, interpersonal relations, and overall social atmosphere of a work environment. A review of the research literature regarding these assumptions follows.

Studies Supporting Sex Differences in Reward Preferences

Lawler (1971) contends that women in general are more social than men either by innate characteristics or as a result of early childhood conditioning. He

states that his research has shown that women rate social needs higher than do men, but rate esteem needs lower. He also concludes that women value pay less than men do. According to Lawler (1971), even women who are the sole supporters of their families place less emphasis on pay as a reward than men. Schuler (1975) compared 50 females and 281 males at different levels within a large manufacturing organization in the Mid-west and found that males valued the opportunity to earn money more than did females. Approximately 70% of his female subjects were clerical workers.

Studies of medical students and practicing doctors by Cartwright (1972), show a low importance rating on status, prestige, quest for admiration and respect, and financial security by women. Females chose the more intrinsic motivators of self-discovery, self-expression, and self-differentiation from work as significantly most important, while males chose the more extrinsic rewards such as pay. This relative lack of concern for monetary gain by females might be attributed to the comparatively high socioeconomic status of women presently in medical school (Lopate, 1968). Jurgensen (1947) had 1,189 males and 150 females rank-order preferences for job rewards and found that males

preferred security, advancement, and fringe benefits, while females were more interested in the type of work to be done, co-workers, good supervisors, and working conditions.

Manhardt (1972) studied the job orientations of 365 male and 301 female college graduates recently employed in a large manufacturing plant. A factor-analysis revealed three main areas of concern: long-term career, pleasant work environment and pleasant employees, and intrinsic outcomes. (Long-term career included advancement and income concerns.) Manhardt's (1972) findings indicated that long-term career was evaluated as more important by males than females. Pleasant working environment and pleasant employees were evaluated as more important by females than males. Bartol (1974) replicated Manhardt's study using college students and found similar results. No sex differences in the intrinsic outcome factor were found in either study.

Women's primary concern with social rewards has been documented in several studies. Eckert and Stecklein (1961) studied college teachers and found differences between what men and women mentioned as most satisfying to them about campus jobs. The female

teachers felt that having good students and desirable colleagues was most important, whereas male teachers emphasized the opportunity to do research and having freedom and independence.

Other studies have shown that females tend to rate social affiliation, the opportunity to have pleasant co-workers, and obtain close personal relationships with constituents higher than do males (Centers & Bugental, 1966; Hardin, Reif, & Heneman, 1951). Previous research on sex differences related to achievement need, task performance, occupational choice, and personal space also offer evidence in support of the contention that men are more concerned with monetary rewards, prestige, and status, whereas women are more concerned with social reinforcements, interpersonal relationships, and more affiliatory aspects of a job (Bales & Slater, 1955; Bardwick, 1971; Davis, 1961; Giesen & McClaren, 1976; Richardson, Dugan, Gray, & Mayher, 1973).

In explanation of the above findings, Schuler (1975) states that:

> Traditionally, women and men have been reared to want to fulfill the role society has cast for them. The origins of ego style in females lies in an empathetic, intuitive, person-oriented style of perception and in the central role that the

> motive to affiliate plays in the development of self-esteem among women. (p. 366)

O'Leary (1974) contends that women measure achievement in terms of success in interpersonal relationships due to a very strong need for affiliation, a need not so powerful in males. Success in the work world may be followed by failure to gain acceptance in the social sphere. Several studies indicated that both men and women are prejudiced against competent women and display their negative feelings or jealousies by excluding these women from group interactions and reducing their access to meaningful personal relationships (Hagen & Kahn, 1975; Horner, 1971; O'Leary, 1974; Peplau, 1973; Pleck, 1976). Implications of studies of successful women show that promotion to higher occupational levels or awarding responsibility and authority may be accompanied by ostracism, loss of friendship and respect, loss of influence, and decreased access to information (Miller, Labovitz, & Fry, 1975).

Horner (1972) refers to this widely accepted view about women as a "motive to avoid success" (p. 62), which she sees as a psychological barrier to achievement in women. She claims that:

> Women are afraid and anxious about success and that this motive to avoid success exists and receives its impetus from the expectancy

> held by most women that success, especially in competitive achievement situations, will be followed by negative consequences for them. Among these are social rejection and feelings of being unfeminine or inadequate as a woman. (Horner, 1972, p. 62)

If a woman's self-esteem focuses on affiliation, it would be cognitively consistent and in keeping with her self-esteem to consider having pleasant, interpersonal relationships with co-workers as very important. Males who derive their self-esteem from independence, aggressiveness, and competition should value rewards of achievement, prestige, and high pay. If it is true that women gratify esteem and other needs through affiliative relationships, it would follow that they would not participate in roles, or seek goals that threaten those important relationships. This may explain the great concentration of women in the traditional fields of teaching, social work, and nursing, where the opportunity to fulfill nurturant needs is most available.

Studies Failing to Find Sex Differences in Reward Preferences

Turner (1964) studied the ambitions of women by comparing career-oriented women and homemakers. He found no reliable evidence that women are more motivated than men to maintain harmonious social

relationships. However, he did conclude from his results that women expect to leave extrinsic rewards such as pay to their husbands while seeking the more intrinsic satisfactions from their occupations. Women who wished to be homemakers were more likely to stress monetary ambition, whereas women who valued education or intrinsic rewards were more likely to seek careers. For men, educational and occupational ambitions were substantially related to desires for material or monetary rewards.

Burke (1966) compared the relative importance of 10 job characteristics of female and male college students and found no significant differences in ranking. Saleh and Lalljee (1969) attempted to replicate Burke's study using 259 males and 143 females and found only minimal differences in what people look for in work. When education and job level were controlled, the differences disappeared.

Crowley, Levitin, and Quinn (1973) tested some of the commonly held beliefs about women regarding competence and commitment. They asked 539 working women and 933 working men to rate the importance of four facets of their jobs. They found no evidence that women are more concerned with socioemotional aspects of

a job than men. O'Leary's (1974) review of the literature on sex differences concludes that work motivations of men and women are very similar. No differences were found between the sexes when ranking importance of stimulating co-workers and opportunity for friendships.

Hardison (1977) examined the contribution and reward expectations of 73 male and 38 female business management students. She reported no sex differences regarding the importance of pay or social rewards. Identical with O'Leary's (1974) findings, stimulating co-workers and opportunity to develop friendships were rated as equally important by both sexes. Opportunities for promotion and recognition were ranked highest in this study with pay being ranked third. However, opportunity for promotion would suggest higher pay in the future. Hardison (1977) contends that the long-range goals of business-oriented men and women are quite similar. Foremost concerns for both sexes are with jobs offering promotional opportunities, high pay, and responsibility.

Sankey (1976) studied the reward values of 66 men and 39 women in the military. Both sexes rated pay first in importance. Recognition was significantly important for males only. Contrary to most other

findings, Sankey (1976) found that males placed more importance on opportunity to develop friendships than women, and women put a higher priority on status than did males.

Evidence also exists showing that the values of females and males are becoming more similar. Lunneborg & Rosenwood (1972) measured need affiliation and need achievement in 279 male and 186 female college students. They concluded that sex stereotypes regarding these needs are changing in this population. Men are becoming more concerned with interpersonal relationships, and women with achievement and success striving.

Summary

All in all, there is conflicting evidence as to whether or not men and women do indeed differ in reward values. Evidence supporting the existence of differences is just as bountiful as evidence failing to support such differences. It is possible that these discrepant findings may be attributable to the particular sample populations studied. Specifically, studies of women in nontraditional occupations suggest that there may be quite different aspirations and value systems operating for traditional and nontraditional women.

It is possible that if response variance for occupational, socioeconomic, and educational level were accounted for, sex differences would disappear (Hulin & Smith, 1964; Saleh & Lalljee, 1969). Many women venturing into nontraditional careers, such as medicine, are from higher socioeconomic levels and have attained higher educational levels than women in the traditional fields (i.e., secretarial) or homemakers. It is also possible that the female subjects used in many of the studies had "traditional" value systems. Many of the women studied were either clerical workers or professionals in traditionally female occupations. The professions in which women dominate (notably nursing, teaching, secretarial work, social work, etc.) primarily utilize skills associated with nurturance, empathy, and competence. Aggressiveness and competition are characteristics rarely found in these fields. Studying women who enter nontraditional fields may produce different results than looking at women who conform to traditional sex roles. Research comparing these two groups of women is sparse but worth noting.

Research Comparing Traditional and Nontraditional Women

Hardin, Reif, and Heneman (1951) used Jurgensen's (1949) Job Preference blank to measure the importance

of job characteristics among male and female supervisors and nonsupervisors. Female supervisors and female nonsupervisors showed much less similarity in preferences than did male supervisors and nonsupervisors. Several studies have found that female executives have a higher need for achievement, a higher need for power, and a lower need for affiliation than do the female nonexecutives (Ghiselli, 1966; Laurent, 1968; McClelland & Winter, 1969; Morrison & Sebald, 1974).

Centers and Bugental (1966) studied persons at various occupational levels and found no sex differences in the values placed on intrinsic and extrinsic factors in work. They did find that at higher occupational levels, intrinsic job components (opportunity for self-expression, interest-value of work, etc.) were more important than extrinsic factors (pay, security, etc.). At the lower occupational levels, extrinsic job components were more important than intrinsic factors.

Rossi (1972) studied the present patterns of women in the sciences, engineering, and medicine and compared these women to nonworking women and women in more traditional fields. She defined her groups as homemakers, traditionals, and pioneers. Homemakers were those women who reported no career goals other than that of housewife and mother. Traditionals were women

whose long-range goals were to have careers in the traditional female occupations, such as teaching, social work, nursing, library work, secretarial work, etc. Pioneers were women who had long-term goals of entering careers predominantly filled by men, such as natural science, business management, public administration, medicine, law, engineering, and architecture. The most relevant findings were that the pioneers were women who had looser ties with family and kin, had been oriented to the world of ideas, were able to sustain less intense interpersonal relationships, and were relatively free of the need to be dependent or nurturant of others.

Manhardt (1972), whose research findings conclude that women value monetary rewards less than men, states that the sex differences found were a result of the restricted range of population sampled. The women in his sample were traditional in that they did not expect a career to be a significant or permanent factor in their lives. Other studies finding sex differences also have limited samples of females due to the fact that they were conducted in large industries where the majority of the female employees are in the clerical fields.

The subject populations used in much of the literature producing results indicating no sex differences consisted of nontraditional females; that is, women oriented toward careers outside the home, and particularly women striving to gain entrance into occupations predominantly occupied by men.

Saleh and Lalljee (1969) and Hardison (1977) both used women with business orientations. Sankey's (1976) sample consisted of women in the navy, a nontraditional profession for females. His findings strongly contradict the view that women are more socially oriented than males, and that males are more motivated by pay and prestige than women.

In summary, there are discrepancies in the research findings related to reward preferences. One possible explanation may be the effect of the specific female samples used. There is evidence to suggest that there are different value systems operating for traditional and nontraditional women. Women aspiring to careers in traditionally male fields, or to managerial or supervisory positions within an organization, may exhibit behaviors and seek rewards uncommon to the traditional women studied in most of the previous research. The primary focus of this study is to determine whether

distinguishing between different types of women will help clarify the ambiguity of the past research.

Chapter 2

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects consisted of 189 males and 276 females, the majority (59%) of whom were students from San Diego State University. Seventy subjects were recruited from an upper-division industrial-psychology class. Thirty of the subjects were members of a women's studies course. The remainder of the student subjects were enrolled in introductory psychology courses in which participation in a psychology experiment is a requirement. They received one hour of credit for volunteering for this study. Each study was requested to write down his or her major, which was later classified into specific categories by the experimenter.

The primary objective of this study was to see if differences exist between traditional and non-traditional women. In order to meet this criterion, it was necessary to have additional female subjects to represent the extremes of the traditionality continuum. Since the experimenter did not feel that a stud- population would justifiably meet this requi

volunteers were recruited from several other places.

Women who would be likely to meet the criteria for nontraditionality were recruited at a Women's Opportunity Fair put on by a professional women's organization located in San Diego. One hundred questionnaires with self-addressed, postage-paid envelopes were handed out to the exhibitors. Forty-five surveys were filled out and returned. Women who would be likely to have a more traditional orientation were recruited from a religious women's group. Twenty-five members of this organization responded to the questionnaire.

A local health spa served as the source for the remaining nonstudent subjects. Questionnaires were handed out to members at varying times during the day and night so as to reach both working and nonworking persons. For subjects who were unable to fill out a questionnaire at that time, return envelopes were made available.

Development of the Traditionality Measure

The first objective of this study was to classify the female sample into two groups, traditional and nontraditional. This was done by using a traditionality questionnaire designed by the experimenter. A

preliminary study was undertaken in which the questionnaire was created and tested. Two hundred and eighteen male and female undergraduate psychology students from San Diego State University served as subjects for the pilot study. Each student was given a two-page questionnaire consisting of a personal information sheet, a self-report traditionality question, and a 20-question traditionality survey (Appendix A). Subjects were asked to read each statement and, on a 5-point scale ranging from very traditional to very nontraditional, rate each question as to how representative it would be of a traditional or nontraditional woman. Students were told to use their own interpretation of traditionality. The statements made references to homemaker versus career orientation, income expectations, marriage and child-rearing, educational values, and satisfaction with specified life-styles.

A Kuder-Richardson reliability of .63 was obtained demonstrating the internal consistency of the test. Each statement was scored from 1 to 5, with a response of 1 representing a very traditional woman and a response of 5 representing a very nontraditional woman. A total score was summed for each statement and a mean rating was calculated. Scores ranged from a low of 1.51 to a high of 4.62. Statements receiving a mean rating of

3.5 or better were considered to be representative of a nontraditional woman. Statements receiving a mean rating of 2.5 or lower were considered to be representative of a traditional woman. Five of the statements received mean scores between 2.5 and 3.5 and were discarded since they were not rated as representing either a traditional or nontraditional woman. A total of 15 statements were used as the classification measure in the major study.

Instrument Description and Administration

Subjects were asked to respond to a three-part questionnaire (Appendix B). The first part consisted of a personal data sheet used in obtaining information pertaining to sex, age, marital status, and occupational status.

A reward values questionnaire, abstracted from Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory, made up the second section of the survey. Internal consistency and test-retest reliabilities of Super's inventory ranged from a low of .74 to a high of .88 with a median reliability of .83. Of Super's original 45-statement inventory, which covers 12 different scales or work values, only three of the scales were applicable. Seven statements

similar in content to the inventory but varying in wording were included. The additional statements were to serve a two-fold purpose. The first was to increase clarification and reduce awkwardness by rephrasing some of the concepts. The second purpose was to have more statements illustrative of each of the three major value areas relevant to this study. Super's (1970) inventory offers only nine phrases pertaining to pay, prestige, and social rewards. The experimenter felt that this would be an insufficient number of items. Intercorrelations between the original and added items were analyzed for reliability. A Pearson correlation coefficient of .75 was obtained. Table 1 lists the original and added items.

Each subject was instructed to read each statement and then rate on a 5-point scale how important that statement was when considering a job. The scale ranged from very important to unimportant. This is the same rating technique used in the original work values inventory.

The third part of the survey, the traditionality questionnaire discussed earlier, was only given to the female subjects (page 3 of Appendix B). It consisted of 15 questions characterizing either traditional or

Table 1

Reward Statements

Number	Reward
R-1[a]	Able to get a raise
R-2[a]	Have good contacts with fellow workers
R-3[a]	Able to gain prestige in the field
R-4	Be admired by fellow workers
R-5[a]	Able to form friendships with fellow workers
R-6[a]	Are paid enough to live right
R-7	Able to confide in fellow workers
R-8[a]	Are looked up to by others
R-9	Have open honest relationships with fellow workers
R-10	Earn enough money to live in a life-style you have always wanted
R-11	Be recognized as an authority in the field
R-12[a]	Be accepted and liked by fellow workers
R-13[a]	Have your work considered important
R-14	Make enough money to enjoy all the luxuries of life
R-15[a]	Have pay increases that keep up with the cost of living

Table 1 (Continued)

Number	Reward
R-16	Have an absence of personal friction among co-workers

[a]Super's original work value statements.

nontraditional values as determined in the pilot study. Subjects were instructed to respond to each question by using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from definitely yes to definitely no.

Students were instructed to write down their majors on the answer sheet. This sheet was later coded into the following categories:

1. The traditionally male majors including: (a) Business Administration (accounting, management, marketing, finance, real estate, computer science, economics), (b) Science (pre-med, biology, chemistry, astronomy, engineering, botony, health science, geology, mathematics, natural science, zoology), and (c) Other fields (industrial arts, law, criminal justice, architecture).

2. The traditionally female majors including: (a) Service-oriented fields (nursing, teaching of elementary and secondary grades, social welfare, counseling, speech pathology, and audiology), and (b) Nonservice-oriented fields (dance, home economics, family studies and consumer education, foods and nutrition, clothing design and fashion merchandising, and interior design).

Data Analysis

The primary purpose of this study was to compare men, traditional and nontraditional women regarding the importance they attribute to pay, prestige, and social rewards. The female sample was classified into traditional and nontraditional groups by scores obtained on the traditionality measure. Each question was scored from 1 to 5, with 1 being most traditional and 5 being most nontraditional. The total score is the sum of each question score. Scores for the nontraditional questions were reversed, with 5 being the most traditional and 1 being the most nontraditional.

Scores had a possible range of 15 to 75, representing the most traditional and most nontraditional scores attainable, respectively. Classification of the female sample into traditionality groupings was made by dividing the traditionality score range into three parts. The 33rd and 66th percentiles served as cut-off points. Those women receiving scores in the lowest third of the range were classified as traditionals. The top third of the range represents the nontraditional women. The females scoring in the middle range were excluded in the comparison of traditional and nontraditional females. They were included in

the general comparisons using age, marital status, and college major.

Responses for the three reward categories were summed giving each subject three total scores: one for pay, one for prestige, and one for social rewards. On the answer sheet a response of very important was given a score of 1; a response of unimportant was given a score of 5. The lowest total score signifies the highest rating of importance. For example, if two groups received mean scores of 9.5 and 10.5, respectively, the first group would have rated that reward as being more important than the second group.

Chapter 3

RESULTS

An analysis of variance was performed on each of the reward variables to test for significant differences between groups. Table 2 shows means and standard deviations for each group on the three reward variables. Figure 1 illustrates the relative values of the reward variables across the subject groups.

No significant differences were found between any of the groups on the pay variable. Men, traditional women, and nontraditional women all rated pay as significantly more important than either prestige or social rewards.

Significant differences were found between groups on the prestige variable, $F\ (2,375) = 4.742$, $p < .01$ (see Appendix C, Table 6). Of the three groups, the nontraditional women gave the highest rating to the prestige rewards. Males gave the second highest rating. Mean ratings for males and nontraditional females were not significantly different. Traditional females responded with appreciably lower ratings than both nontraditional females ($p < .01$) and males ($p < .05$) (see Appendix C, Table 8). The mean difference between

Table 2

Group Means and Standard Deviations
for Reward Values

Group	Pay	Prestige	Social
Traditional Women (N = 84)	M = 10.07 SD = 3.43	M = 12.71 SD = 4.26	M = 11.75 SD = 3.73
Nontraditional Women (N = 105)	M = 10.28 SD = 3.08	M = 11.13 SD = 3.53	M = 12.36 SD = 3.58
Men (N = 189)	M = 9.71 SD = 3.36	M = 11.64 SD = 3.23	M = 12.44 SD = 3.57

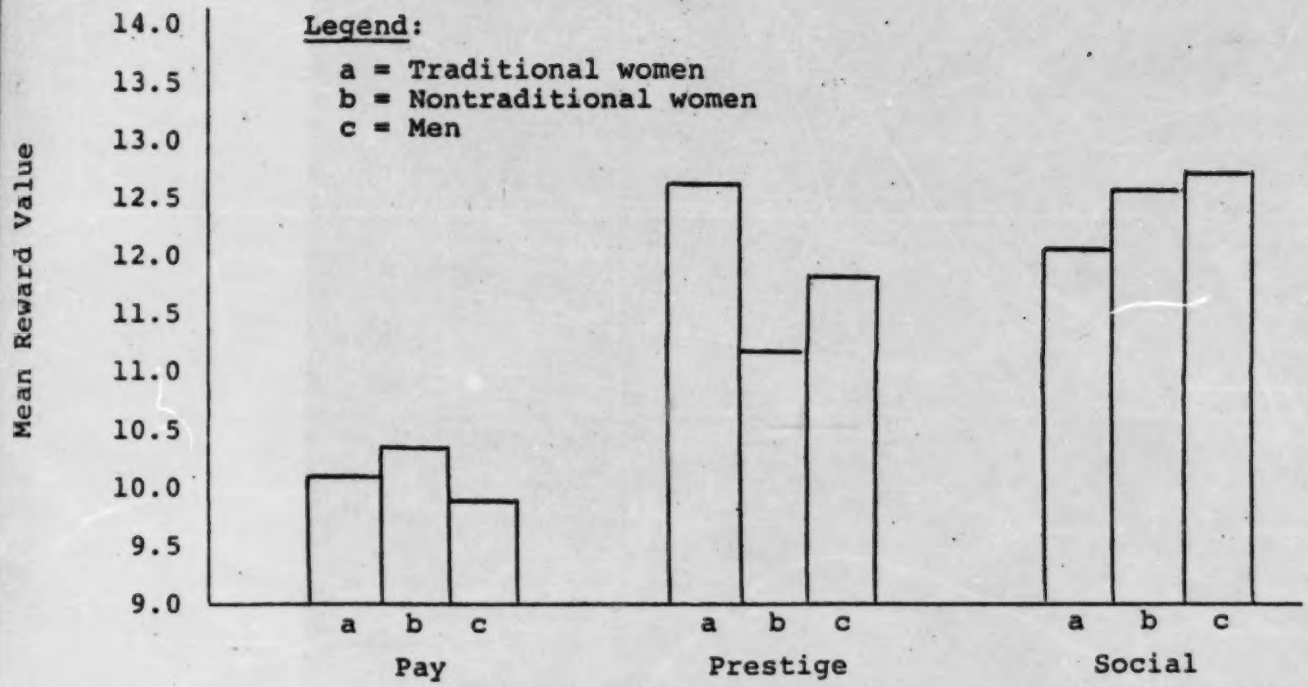

Figure 1. Reward variable mean scores.

the nontraditional women and men was .502, while the mean difference between males and traditional women was 1.079. The ratings of the nontraditional women were closer to the ratings of the men than to the ratings of the traditional women.

An analysis of variance was also computed on each of the 16 reward variables independently. Table 3 gives the mean values for each of the three groups, as well as the associated F values. Significant differences were found on the following six variables: being able to gain prestige; having open, honest relations with fellow employees; being recognized as an authority in the field; being accepted and liked by fellow workers; knowing your work is considered important by others; and making enough money to enjoy all the luxuries of life. Men and nontraditional women both gave higher ratings to the statements "being able to gain prestige" and "being recognized as an authority in the field" than did traditional women. This was also evident in the combined scores. However, on "knowing your work is considered important by others," another prestige variable, the nontraditional women scored the highest and the traditional women were the second highest. On this item, males scored below both female groups.

Table 3

Means and F Ratios for Individual Rewards by Group

Reward	Means			F
	Traditional Women	Nontraditional Women	Men	
R- 1	1.80	1.89	1.80	.35
R- 2	1.48	1.58	1.70	1.86
R- 3	2.52	1.89	2.08	7.85**
R- 4	2.44	2.24	2.40	.85
R- 5	2.02	1.92	2.10	1.66
R- 6	1.55	1.55	1.52	1.99
R- 7	2.77	3.05	2.75	1.72
R- 8	2.79	2.69	2.52	1.62
R- 9	1.93	1.79	2.03	3.33*
R-10	2.49	2.37	2.26	1.21
R-11	2.92	2.41	2.38	5.13**
R-12	1.86	2.11	2.00	4.18**
R-13	2.07	1.75	2.28	3.30*
R-14	2.73	2.98	2.62	2.90*
R-15	1.55	1.50	1.55	.19
R-16	1.69	1.92	1.93	1.93

*$p < .05$.

**$p < .01$.

Nontraditional women scored the highest of the three groups on "having open, honest relations with fellow employees." Traditional women scored about at the mean and men scored quite low on this statement. Concern with being accepted and liked was most highly valued by traditional women, as expected. However, the nontraditional women scored the lowest on this variable. The males scored half-way below the mean and the low score of the nontraditional females.

The statement, "being able to make enough money to enjoy all the luxuries of life," was most highly valued by men and given lowest importance by non-traditional women. The traditional women's scores fell slightly closer to the men than to the nontraditional women.

The rank orders of the individual reward statements are given in Table 4. Minimal differences exist between groups on rankings of individual items. "Having pay increases that keep up with the cost of living," "being paid enough to live right," and "having good contacts with fellow workers" were ranked among the top three by all groups.

There was some consensus on the lowest ranked statements as well. "Being able to confide in fellow

Table 4

Rank Order of Rewards

Reward	Rank Order		
	Traditional Women	Nontraditional Women	Men
R- 1	5	7	4
R- 2	1	3	3
R- 3	12	6	8
R- 4	10	11[a]	7
R- 5	8	8[a]	9
R- 6	3	2	1
R- 7	14	16	16
R- 8	15	14	14
R- 9	7	5	7
R-10	11	12	10
R-11	16	13	11
R-12	6	10	6
R-13	8	4	10
R-14	12	15	15
R-15	2	1[a]	2
R-16	4	8[a]	5

[a]Mean scores are identical.

workers," "being looked up to by others," "being recognized as an authority in the field," and "making enough money to enjoy all the luxuries of life" were ranked in the lowest third for all groups.

A univariate F-test was performed to test for differences in reward values between age groups (see Appendix C, Table 7). Means and standard deviations for age groups are given in Table 5. Significant differences on the prestige variable were found ($p < .05$). The greatest difference was between two of the middle age groups. The 31 to 40 age group gave the highest ratings, while the 26-30 age group obtained the lowest ratings (see Figure 2).

Significant differences were also found between age groups on the social reward variable ($p < .01$). The youngest two age groups rated social rewards significantly higher than the two oldest age groups. As illustrated in Figure 2, importance of social rewards decreased progressively with age.

A one-way analysis of variance using marital status and reward values showed significant differences on the social variable as well ($p < .01$) (see Appendix C, Table 9). Single subjects attributed greater importance to the social rewards than did married

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations of Reward Values by Age Group

Group	Pay	Prestige	Social
Under 21 (N = 154)	M = 10.14 SD = 3.26	M = 11.51 SD = 3.51	M = 11.19 SD = 3.23
21-25 (N = 148)	M = 9.63 SD = 2.80	M = 11.49 SD = 2.99	M = 11.81 SD = 3.11
26-30 (N = 59)	M = 10.16 SD = 3.52	M = 13.07 SD = 4.33	M = 12.80 SD = 3.62
31-40 (N = 54)	M = 10.82 SD = 3.74	M = 11.13 SD = 3.62	M = 13.85 SD = 4.31
Over 40 (N = 50)	M = 10.02 SD = 3.32	M = 12.44 SD = 4.06	M = 13.38 SD = 3.75

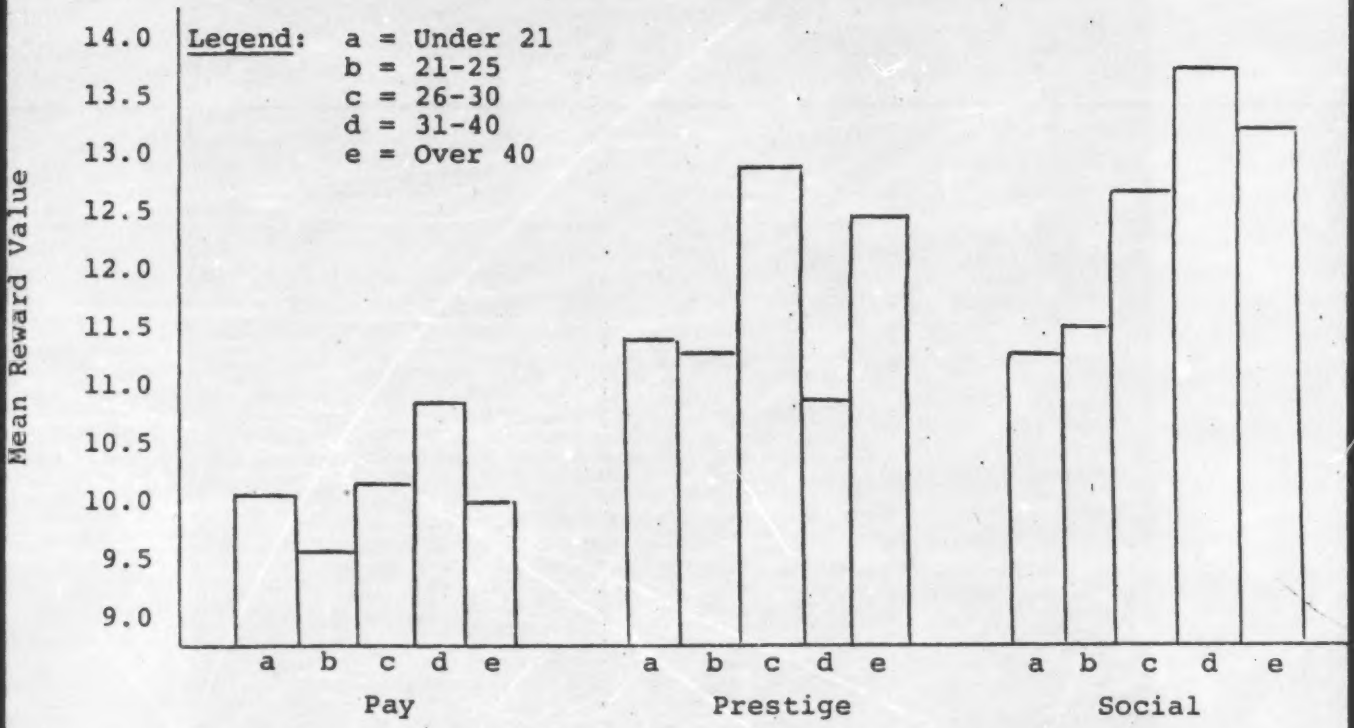

Figure 2. Reward value by age group.

subjects (see Figure 3). There was a high correlation (.79) between age and marital status, the single subjects tending to be younger. A one-way analysis of variance using only single and married females yielded almost identical results to those obtained when the total subject pool was used.

A comparison was made between student subjects in traditionally male majors versus traditionally female majors. A one-way analysis of variance indicated no significant differences between the groups on any of the three reward variables (see Figure 4).

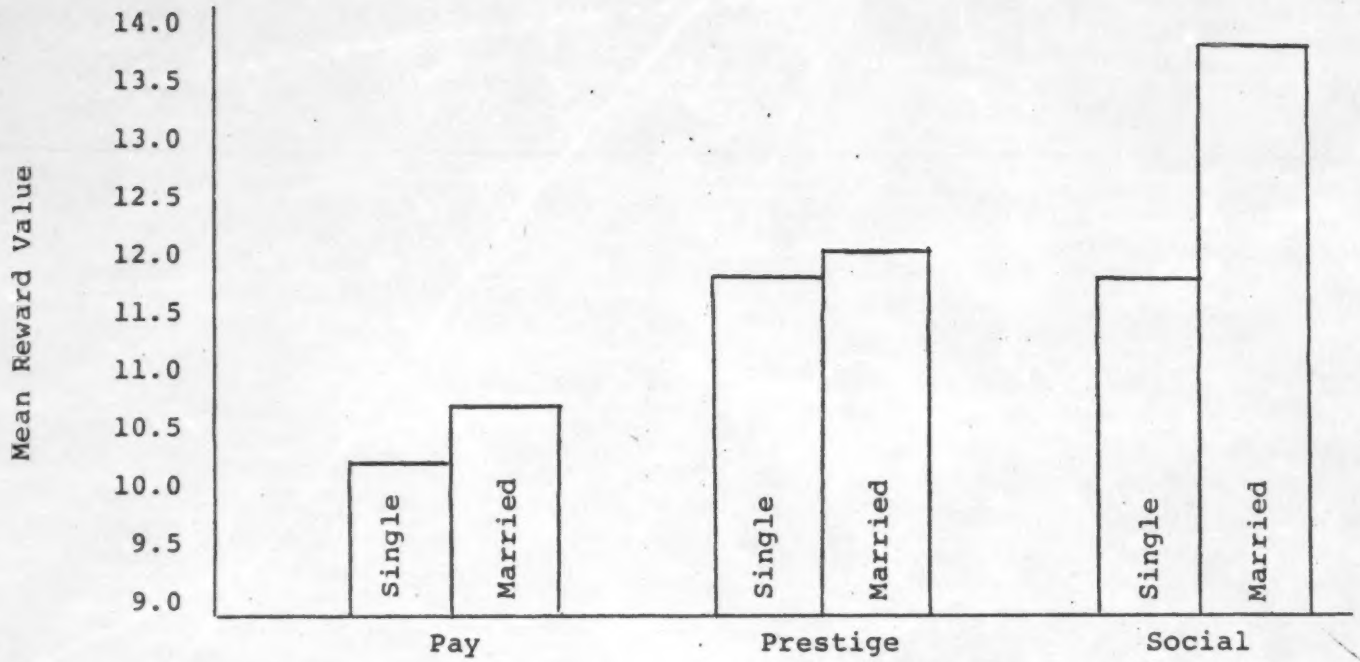

Figure 3. Reward value by marital status.

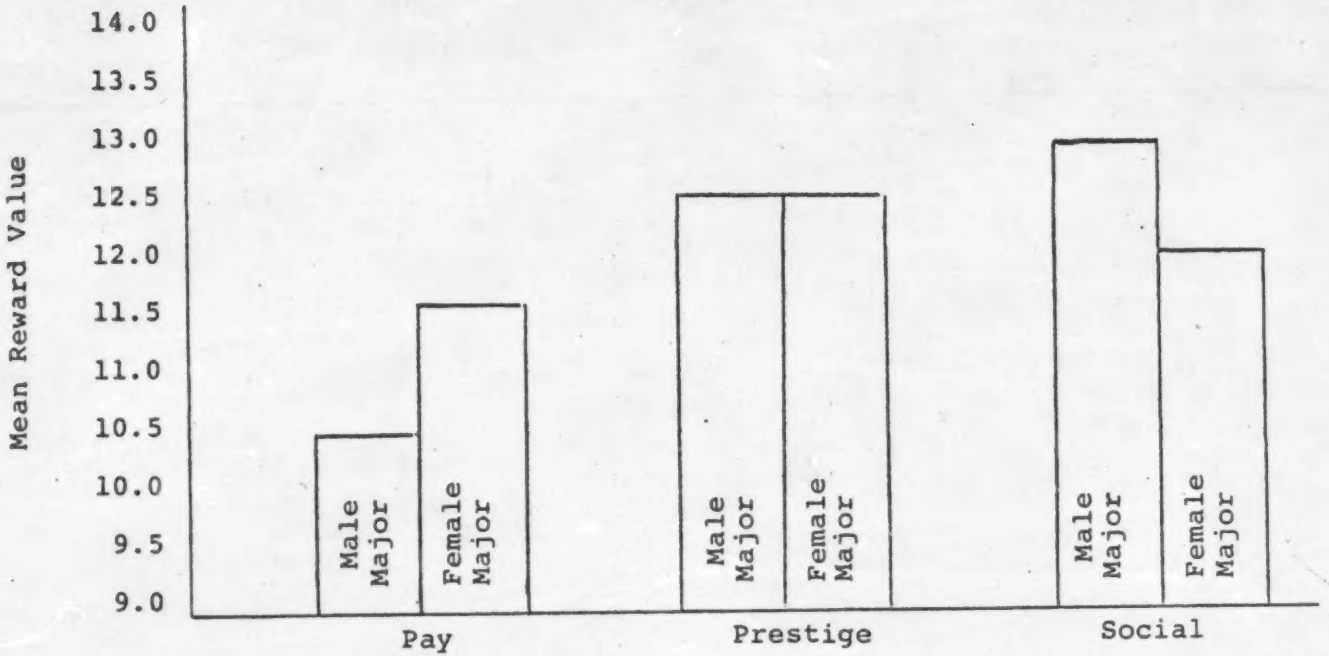

Figure 4. Reward value by major.

Chapter 4

DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of this study was to compare the importance men, traditional women, and non-traditional women attach to pay, prestige, and social rewards in a job. No significant differences between men and both groups of women were found regarding the importance of pay. The overall ratings for the pay dimension were comparatively higher for all groups than the ratings for either prestige or social rewards. All three groups ranked "having pay increases that keep up with the cost of living" and "being paid enough to live right" among the top three priorities. These findings are in conflict with many previous studies citing evidence that females are more concerned with the social aspects of their jobs than with the economic rewards (Bales & Slater, 1955; Bardwick, 1971; Cartwright, 1972; Davis, 1961; Jurgensen, 1947; Lawler, 1971). However, these results are consistent with Hardison's (1977) and Sankey's (1976) findings showing no sex differences regarding the importance of pay.

Significant differences between groups were found regarding the importance attached to prestige. The

traditional women rated prestige significantly lower than men. However, the nontraditional women rated prestige appreciably higher than traditional women and slightly higher than men, although the latter difference was not statistically significant. This finding supports Sankey's (1976) results in which navy women rated status higher than navy men. However, these results do not agree with the majority of previous studies which claim that women deemphasize prestige as an important reward (Cartwright, 1972; Horner, 1972; O'Leary, 1974). The distinction made in this study between the values of traditional and nontraditional women may help to explain some of the ambiguity in the previous research. The traditional women who either do not work or who work in jobs where prestige is not attainable, do not attribute as much importance to having this reward. The significantly higher ratings given to the prestige variable by the nontraditional women may reflect changing values and self-concepts of this group. Horner's "fear of achievement" explanation for women not wanting to attain status and success does not seem to apply to the nontraditional women in this study. The desire to erase old stereotypes by appearing successful, knowledgeable, and important in

the eyes of others is a realistic concern for this group of women.

Previous studies citing evidence of sex differences regarding social orientation were not supported by this study. Traditional women rated the social rewards slightly higher than either men or nontraditional women, but the differences were not significant. Males and nontraditional females had almost identical mean scores on the social variable. However, there were significant differences on some of the specific social reward questions. The nontraditional women were more concerned with having open, honest relations with other employees than were the traditional women or the men. The traditional women and men were more concerned with being accepted and liked by fellow workers than were the nontraditional women.

There are several possible explanations for the discrepancy between this study and previous studies supporting sex differences in social reward values. First, the majority of subjects in this study consisted of students. Students, for the most part, are younger than the general population. As was found in this study, younger people are more concerned with social rewards than are older people. Results also showed

that single subjects were more concerned with the social aspects of a job than married subjects. Sixty-eight percent of the subjects in this study were single and 65% of the subjects were under 26 years of age. The high percentage of young, single males in this study may partially explain the relatively higher value males placed on the social reward variable than found in previous studies.

It is also possible that greater concern with the social rewards of a job by males is evidence of a changing value system. Men, like women, may be conforming less to social stereotypes. Research suggests that although differences exist between men and women, they are diminishing (Lunneborg & Rosenwood, 1972).

Failure to replicate studies indicating sex differences on the pay and social dimensions may have been affected by a lack of extremely traditional females. The traditionality classification of subjects in this study was determined by a relative comparison to the rest of the sample. Assuming that the majority of the females tended to fall nearer the nontraditional end of the scale, the cutoff points used would not have been a true classification of traditional females. The majority of female subjects were college students,

although females from other sources were used. Contact with the women's liberation movement would be stronger in an academic environment than in the general population. This influence of being surrounded by nontraditional ideas may result in a rejection of traditional values. In three of the studies referred to earlier in which no sex differences were found, subjects from nontraditional sources were used (Burke, 1966; Hardison, 1977; Sankey, 1976).

The findings of this study do not support previous research citing evidence of sex differences in preference for pay and social rewards. Lack of such differences regarding these forms of compensation implies a comparatively similar value system for men and women. The appreciable difference found between traditional and nontraditional women concerning the importance they attach to prestige indicates that the expectations and values of these two groups of women are not the same. By seeking rewards of prestige and status, nontraditional women are rebelling against societal pressures to conform to traditional stereotypes. Management needs to consider the changing values of the nontraditional, career-oriented women, when planning compensation systems. Further research

comparing traditional and nontraditional women is needed to see if, and in what respect, these groups of women differ.

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TRADITIONALITY QUESTIONNAIRE

Please read each statement below carefully. Using the 5 point scale below, rate each statement on the degree to which it is characteristic of a traditional or a non-traditional woman. Please mark all your answers by darkening in the appropriate circle next to each number on the IBM answer sheet provided. Be sure that each question number corresponds to the same number on the answer sheet. If you have any questions regarding the scale or procedure please ask.

TRADITIONAL ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ NONTRADITIONAL
A B C D E

6. A woman who considers a career as secondary in importance to the role of mother and homemaker.

7. A woman who will work only if it is financially necessary.

8. A woman who plans on having a full-time career only before having children and again after they reach school-age.

9. A woman who plans on having a full-time career only before having children and again after they are fully grown.

10. A woman who plans on contributing an equal amount with her husband to the family income.

11. A woman who plans on devoting her life to a career rather than to marry and have children.

12. A woman who expects to possibly earn more than her husband.

13. A woman who wants to earn "extra" spending money to supplement her husband's income in order to live a more comfortable life-style.

14. A woman who can successfully carry out a dual role of career woman and homemaker.

15. A woman who intends to marry but not have any children.

16. A woman who is content being single.

17. A woman who marries directly after graduating high school.

18. A woman who marries during college.

19. A woman who delays marriage until completion of college.

20. A woman who delays marriage until completion of graduate school.

21. A woman who intends to be a homemaker with a part-time job.

22. A woman who intends to be a homemaker only and not have any outside job.

23. A woman who views her college education as a preparation for a career.

24. A woman who attends college mainly for social and cultural stimulation.

25. A woman who views the work of a homemaker as enjoyable and satisfying.

Please use the following scale when answering the following questions.

A = DEFINITELY YES

B = PROBABLY YES OR USUALLY YES

C = UNDECIDED OR NOT APPLICABLE

D = PROBABLY NO OR USUALLY NO

E = DEFINITELY NO

Answer each of the following questions either as to how it applies to you now or to how it will apply to you in the future.

21. Do you consider a career as secondary in importance to the role of mother and homemaker?

22. Would you work only it if was financially necessary?

23. Would you plan on having a full-time career before having children and after they were fully grown only? (That is, would you not work while you had children at home under your care?)

24. Do you now or can you see yourself ever contributing an equal amount with your husband to the family income?

25. Do you now or do you plan on devoting your life to a career rather than to marry and have children?

26. Can you forsee yourself earning more than your husband?

27. Are you presently or do you intend to marry but not have any children?

28. Are you now or would you be content being single?

29. Did you or do you plan on marrying directly after high-school?

30. Did you or do you plan on marrying directly after college?

31. Did you or do you plan on delaying marriage until completion of graduate school?

32. Are you presently or do you intend to be a homemaker only and not have any outside job?

33. Are you presently or do you intend to be a homemaker with a part-time job?

34. Did you or do you plan on attending college just for social and cultural stimulation?

35. Do you view the work of a homemaker as enjoyable and satisfying?